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EDITORIAL NOTES

In the book review section of this number of THE JOURNAL appears a notice of a recent publication, *Schools and Society in Chicago* by Professor Counts, contributing editor of THE JOURNAL, which will attract wide attention among all those who are interested in school administration in its sociological significance. The conventional texts on school administration include material on buildings, the administration of tests and measurements, State and local boards, the teaching staff, and numerous other similar topics. Most of the writers, however, totally neglect the social backgrounds of the community and their bearing upon administrative problems. Furthermore, the writers appear to be unconscious of the fact that there are in each community vital social processes in education which must be taken into account and dealt with in a masterly fashion in order to carry on the routine work of administration at all.

Professor Thrasher in his study of the gangs in Chicago displayed a body of material with which the administrator of schools has been unfamiliar. Such material bears directly on the administration of schools. Professor Zorbaugh, in his forthcoming study of local life in Chicago,

finds not only that the school plays an insignificant rôle in meeting the problems of local community life in the large city, but that in many instances the school actually creates community problems. Professor Counts has likewise critically analyzed a body of material and points out its bearing upon the problem of the administration of schools. The implications in this study will no doubt appear new to most superintendents. Why is it that material of such vital significance has been overlooked by educators occupying positions of leadership in American education? The answer is obvious to the educational sociologist. The administrator has become familiar with psychology and philosophy as applied to education. He has had usually no sociological training. His researches so far as they have been undertaken have been on child nature and its growth, and the mechanics of school administration. These studies have not been centered upon community life. The factors of human personality operating in group life, however, must be taken into account for any successful administration of schools. So far as the editor knows, this is the first book that undertakes a critical examination of even a part of the social forces which public education is supposed to direct, modify, and influence in the operation and the direction of social advance. The mere persistence of the superintendent in his position demands that he know something of group life and its operation. There is no subject in the university or teachers-college curriculum which makes a scientific approach to the study of these problems except educational sociology. It is to the solution of these problems that **THE JOURNAL** is in part attempting to devote its efforts.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF
EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY
JOINT MEETING WITH THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL
SOCIETY
SECTION ON EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY
December 27, 1928

Morning Session

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Topic—Rural Community and Educational Administration

The Rural Community as a Unit for Rural Administration—PROFESSOR DWIGHT SANDERSON, Cornell University

Discussion by Dr. A. W. HAYES, Marshall College

Adaptation of Educational Administration to Rural Communities—GEORGE A. WORKS, University of Chicago

Luncheon Session

General Topic—Rural Sociology in Educational Problems

Problems of Rural Education Demanding Sociological Research—President's Annual Address

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ESSENTIALS OF A GENERAL INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY¹

WALTER ROBINSON SMITH

Two years ago, in a paper read before the Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, the writer elaborated in considerable detail the need of a consensus of attitudes, principles, and practices in teaching educational sociology. Since that subject has now taken specific form for this program, the present paper can be confined within narrow limits. The concrete problem to be discussed may be expressed as follows: Just what are the points of view and subject matters which I, as a teacher of an advanced course in educational sociology, have a right to expect the entrant to be familiar with, regardless of wherever or under whomsoever he may have had the introductory course? This implies, not that the introductory course must be standardized into uniform materials and methods, but that a reasonable agreement must be reached concerning a certain number of fundamentals. Our present need may be expressed in another way: Until there is at least a recognizable minimum of common essentials in every introductory course offered, we shall not receive, and probably shall not deserve, the full respect of other teachers in education, or in other departments of a reputable university.

With this preliminary statement and without any presumption that my analysis of the minimum essentials is better than that of another or that it is not subject to considerable change, I shall try to set forth what seems to me to constitute the basic ideas which should never be absent from a first course in educational sociology. Such a course might well consist of three parts: (1) Introductory analyses; (2) the sociology of education as an institutional func-

¹Paper read before a division of the College Teachers of Education at the Boston meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

tion; (3) the sociological study of school processes. These three parts may appear in different order and receive varying amounts of attention depending upon the class of students, the personal equation of the instructor, and the status of the course in the curriculum. No one, however, can safely be omitted. Let us examine each in turn.

I. THE INTRODUCTION

Under ordinary conditions, introductions, whether in society, or on the platform, or in school courses, should be very brief. Only the newness of the subject, its radical departure from the traditional point of view, and the complexity of the materials it embodies, can justify any extended preliminary discussions. Until such time, however, as our students come to us as well grounded in general sociology as the students entering educational psychology are grounded in general psychology, I can see no escape from spending a certain amount of our valuable time in sociological orientation. Just what, then, are the essentials of this orientation? Aside from the generalities incident to any new course, such as definition, purpose, and the relation of content to other educational disciplines, there are two basic concepts which are novel enough to the ordinary student to require extended illustration and perhaps defense.

The first of these concepts is concerned with the unit of study to be used. In those studies whose content is well enough established to become a part of the student social inheritance, such a preliminary is simple; but with us even the unit of study is subject to question. The group concept is so foreign to ordinary educational thinking that to many it appears new and revolutionary. Psychologists deal with individuals, discreet, ponderable realities, the traditional unit of school endeavor, and hence they have little need to pause over this phase of their subject. But

the sociologist begins and ends with the group and uses it always as his major focus of interest. Since it is less tangible and less completely organized, even though no less real than the individual, the sociologist must explain, illustrate, and elaborate in detail the significance of the social group in originating, developing, and executing both thought and achievement.

Without doubt there will be some among us who feel that I exaggerate the importance of a mere point of view; but I am unable to see how anyone can progress far in the understanding of educational sociology until he has a reasonably clear insight into the mutual interrelations and interdependencies of the individual and the social group. It is probable that as the social sciences develop, a sound interpretation of the group concept may become general; but that the time is altogether too distant is evident from the fact that many sociologists, even some teachers of educational sociology, are still dominated by individualistic thinking. They are in somewhat the same predicament as the author of a recent textbook in social psychology. This book is written with painstaking scholarship and great acumen, but an astounding amount of it is consumed in piling up evidence to prove that the individual is the beginning, the end, and the middle of human thought and action, and hence there can be no such thing as social psychology. It seems obvious to me that the moment we admit that the individual is the original, primary, and causal unit in human affairs that moment we admit that there can be no independent science of sociology or educational sociology. If thinking, inventing, discovering, leading, etc., can be reduced to a purely individual basis, if history and science and education can be treated as purely individualistic phenomena, then the so-called social sciences are merely extensions of psychology into the field of collective behavior. Furthermore, if the social group or institution is any more composed of individual increments than the individual is

composed of social and institutional increments, then educational sociology is a mere branch of educational psychology. Such a position of dependence would follow inevitably from an acceptance of Professor Allport's interpretation of social psychology.

Methods of inculcating the group concept will differ from teacher to teacher but means should be found in every introductory course in educational sociology to give training to students in overcoming the traditional individualistic bias and making them conscious of the group as an aggressive, originating unit, coördinate with the individual in every thought, act, ideal, and achievement.

The second fundamental concept that should run like the well-known "golden thread" through all of our work is that of socialization. If you ask an educational psychologist concerning the nature of his subject matter he will answer immediately that it is a study of the learning process. Has the educational sociologist an equally succinct answer that he can give to such a query? I think he has, and I expect it to be reiterated so frequently during the next quarter of a century that no explanation of it will be necessary. The suggestive definition, corresponding in terminology to that of educational psychology, is that educational sociology is a study of the socializing process. Neither of these abbreviated definitions are very meaningful, but they do serve as useful catch phrases around which to group explanations and studies.

To avoid any possible misunderstanding, may I elucidate further. Two individuals meet. The subtle processes of communication—gesture, voice, language, etc.,—as definite psychic mechanisms as the stimulus and response nerve cells within an individual, arouse a sympathy, an understanding, a social relationship that supervenes the personality of each. It is a new creation, a nucleus for coördinating group feeling, thinking, and acting. This associational

process is repeated and matures into a chumship. The chumship is more than the sum of the qualities of two individuals; it is a new social entity, created by the activity of interindividual stimuli and responses, which in turn have been molded into form by the same society which created the two individuals. Such a chumship constitutes a social group as distinct from either of the personalities composing it as they are from each other. Two other individuals meet, male and female. Social satisfiers and annoyers, both tangible and intangible stimulus and response mechanisms, are set in motion. These interacting social mechanisms create a new group entity which ultimately eventuates in the formation of a family. This newly created family takes form from social heredity as much as from the personalities of the contracting parties. Children come, and are molded, not into likeness to father and mother, so much as into a family pattern, which includes many ancestors. In like manner, gangs, fraternal orders, political parties, churches, and vocational organizations are formed. They are fashioned after other social groupings as well as the ideas of individuals composing them. Each of the above social groups becomes an originating and driving force, as definite a nucleus of the stimuli that produce thinking and acting as the physiological organisms of an individual.

Carrying this idea further, it is obvious that humanity, or society as we know it, is composed of both individuals and groups. Both are aggressive agents in every sentiment, thought, and act of human beings. Hence, life in any of its important aspects can be understood and interpreted only when studied from both individual and group standpoints. So significant a phase of life as education is both an individual and a group matter. It is equally vital to both, but the educative process as related to the two is sufficiently different to require separate names. As related to the individual it is learning; as related to the

group it is socialization. Learning takes place only through neural activities within the individual; socialization takes place only through social contacts between individuals, and individuals in contact constitute a social group. The morning greeting, the "twosome date," the gang about the drug store, the relatively continuous chumship, the athletic team or dramatic troupe, the school class, the family, and all of the larger deliberate and incidental organizations of people are nuclei of the socializing process. These groups constitute both means and ends of education and the phenomena they present form the laboratory materials of educational sociology. Educational sociologists as such are interested in the individual only through his social functioning and in learning only as it reinforces socialization. While the learning process and the socializing process are complementary, they originate in different places and move in opposite directions, the educational sociologist beginning his studies always with the group and dealing with the individual only in his group aspects.

I trust it will readily be understood that in this analysis of a satisfactory introduction I am pleading as much for a common terminology as for a minimum of universally recognized content. In itself, the terms used may not be important but in the establishment of a necessary point of view and in orienting our subject matter, both for students and the outsider, I consider an accepted terminology vital to the progress of educational sociology as a professional study for teachers. Moreover, this introductory material cannot be treated lightly. Merely telling students about it will be almost futile. They must be given practice in applying the group concept to various phases of life and achievement if we expect to develop in them habits of social thinking and of recognizing social outcomes as an end of school work. It should, therefore, occupy several days of intensive work at the beginning of a course and be reviewed at the end.

II. THE SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION AS AN INSTITUTION

If, in the introduction, students are thoroughly grounded in the social, or group, point of view, they are then ready to apply it in a sociological study of education as an institution. This implies an investigation of the educational aspects of the various social processes. Chief among these are the passing on of the social inheritance, social organization, social control, and social progress. Each of these processes constitutes both a means and an end of education and should be dealt with fully enough to make them useful bases of approach to school problems. The social inheritance, for example, through the folk ways and *mores* dominates the vast ranges of informal education. It provides the patterns of administrative machinery by which the schools are organized and directed, and a large share of the materials of the curriculum. That it constitutes an end of education is indicated by the frequent repetition of Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler's definition of education as the process of passing on the social inheritance and its general acceptance as the chief purpose of the elementary schools.

As most of you know, the second of these processes, social organization, forms the chief basis of the writer's early attack upon educational problems. One of the first and most obvious contributions educational sociology should make is a clarification of the function of the schools as they are related to other organizational activities. Through the stimulus inchoate groups and institutional organizations give to thought and activity, the practice they provide in social participation and the use of social machinery, and the inspiration they offer to learning and socialization, they contribute abundant means and materials to the educative process. Also, since a large proportion of one's life activities must take place in groups, and a goodly share of the service one renders must be in the nature of improving institutional efficiency, the development of social-mindedness and skill in organization becomes a primary end of

education. On the whole, it is probable that more educational sociologists have dealt satisfactorily with this phase of their subject than any other.

The third of the social processes which are immanent in every phase of education is that of social control. It forms the chief basis of Professor Hayes's approach to educational problems, was the foundation of the writer's *Constructive School Discipline*, and is more or less fully recognized in all of the textbooks now available. The varied elements of social control provide the stimulating and restraining factors in school discipline, training for personality leadership, and moral education. Social control, therefore, supplies both means and ends in a socializing school régime. In like manner, the fourth of the social processes, that of social evolution or progress, is implicit in all educational thinking and acting. Professors Ellwood and Todd have particularly emphasized this approach to educational philosophy. A study of evolutionary trends and a weighing of human values are necessary to a sound interpretation of present school programs and policies. As mastery of the past constitutes a fundamental means of education, so the control and direction of present forces to bring about changes favorable to progress constitute vital ends of education.

Any one of these four major social processes, i.e., the passing on of the social inheritance, social organization, social control, or social progress, may be made the basis of a systematic treatment of educational data and specific school problems. Hence any teacher may, and probably should, emphasize some one much more than the others; but no introductory course should omit at least a brief study of the educational implications of each of them. It seems to me that no one can read intelligently either the popular literature or the technical educational magazines of our day without realizing that one of our most glaring needs is a sane and broad educational perspective; and

the educational sociologist, through a clear analysis of the sociology of education as an institutional activity, has an incomparable opportunity to develop such a perspective. Moreover, a study of the various social processes should not be merely theoretical. It can be made as practical as any other teacher-training discipline if every phase of the discussion is so concretely connected with the daily life of the school that the student can see its application to specific teaching problems.

III. THE SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF SCHOOL PROCESSES

The third fundamental part of a beginning course should consist of an application of the group concept to practical school problems. These problems are usually grouped into four divisions—objectives, administration, curriculum, and method. In each, the individual and the social group are equally involved; hence a balanced treatment requires both psychological and sociological studies. By virtue of his long running start ahead of us, we can trust the educational psychologist to keep the individual and his learning processes in the foreground. The responsibility rests with us, therefore, to maintain the proper educational perspective by a continued emphasis upon group phenomena and the socializing processes in each of the four phases of school work. That educational sociologists have not lived up to their responsibilities is evident from the fact that few texts have included even a brief treatment of two of these divisions. In fact, the only one that has received sufficient analysis to make a definite impression upon educational theory and practice is that of objectives. Naturally, the social-activity approach to the determination of school objectives has involved some treatment of curricula from the standpoint of their social outcomes; but neither administration nor method has received anything like adequate treatment from educational sociologists. While it may not be possible in a brief introductory course to cover the

whole field thoroughly, no one of these four aspects of school activity can safely be neglected if we are to convince the practical school man that educational sociology is as foundational to every phase of his work as is educational psychology.

In his researches into concrete school problems, the educational sociologist must utilize exact scientific instruments. The astronomer has his telescope and the biologist his microscope. Coming still closer the educational psychologist has his tests and scales. Can we develop a correspondingly exact means of measurement? I think we can, and it is time for us to begin standardizing a name for it. The tool or scientific device, most common to the social sciences is the *survey*. It is used in history, political science, economics, and sociology, and indicates an impartial, exact, and relatively complete assembly and classification of objective data. While the term "survey" as used in the social sciences does not have the exact connotation or universal use as a means of measurement, now associated with the microscope or the intelligence test, it is the nearest parallel which the present inchoate status of the social sciences can present. Moreover, the name has been preempted in education by the shot-gun type of general school survey. Yet, in spite of these difficulties, it seems to me to be the only term now available which we are likely to agree upon, and into which frequent usage may read the exact significance that must characterize studies in our field. It is true that a survey implies comprehensiveness, and consequently the term cannot be used for every detailed study in the realm of educational sociology. But neither are all biological studies microscopic, nor all psychological studies called tests. It will scarcely be questioned, however, that the term "survey" fits general sociological studies of objectives, administration, curricula, and methods, and if it be continually repeated will gradually acquire the exactness and objectivity of other scientific nomenclature.

Using the survey as an instrument, then, an introductory course should embody a preliminary investigation of the social aspects of each of the four divisions of school problems. A survey of objectives would imply an analysis of social activities and the personal characteristics required in the performance of these activities. Such surveys have already been conducted with notable success by Bobbitt, Charters, Peters, and others. My advanced text, just off the press, contains initial general surveys of the student population and the teaching population, together with the inherent problems they present. Scientific surveys of administrative machinery and policies, both as they affect society outside the schools, and administrative officers within the schools, are very much needed. In like manner, the application of detailed survey technique is needed to bring out the social elements involved in the readaptation and reconstruction of present school curricula. Finally, the survey idea might be used as a basis of attack upon the problem of method, and, by its greater comprehensiveness, serve as an antidote to the narrowness of the individual-instructionist zealots, the project-problem worshipers, the socialized-recitation reformers, and the lecture, drill, and question-and-answer traditionalists.

By way of summary and conclusion may I suggest that educational sociology is rapidly growing into a universally accepted discipline in the training of teachers and that one of our two most binding obligations is to hasten this desideratum by organizing a beginning course which can be made effective for every student of education. Further, may I urge that such a course should contain, in some form and degree, the following essentials: (1) A reasonable consensus concerning the point of view and terminology to be made familiar in every elementary course regardless of wheresoever or by whomsoever offered; (2) that every such course should embody a respectable minimum of commonly accepted materials and problems; (3) that it must

include the orientation of education as a social institution by a sufficient analysis of the educational aspects of such general social processes as the perpetuation of the social heritage, social organization, social control, and social progress to give the student a clear insight into the social function of the school; (4) that it should be intense enough to give training in sociological thinking and investigation in the field of education and extensive enough to cover in a preliminary way each of the four divisions of school problems; (5) that this general course aim equally at giving practical aid to the teacher who takes no further work in educational sociology, and providing a broad foundation for those students who elect advanced courses in our department. It is scarcely to be hoped or desired that all of us agree concerning details or relative emphases in the broad field above outlined; but we may rest assured that as rapidly as we can organize an introductory course embodying the above essentials, and train teachers to give it with a modicum of efficiency, it will take its place alongside the general course in educational psychology as a prerequisite for a certificate to teach in the public schools.

UNSUPERVISED CLUB LIFE AMONG GIRLS ATTENDING SECONDARY SCHOOLS

JOHN M. EDDY

Writers in educational sociology have long realized that boys tend to form unsupervised groups, but the fact that girls form similar organizations has been ignored. This truth was brought home to a group of sophomores in one of our Southern colleges for women when a search through the college library showed that all references to gangs dealt with groups of boys. Later the search was continued in the libraries of one of our great universities with the same results. The present study is an attempt to learn something of the nature of the unsupervised club activities of girls attending secondary schools.

The information was gathered by the use of a questionnaire distributed to 364 members of the sophomore class, the per cent of returns being about ninety. Later the information was supplemented by personal interviews. The returns represent every county in an entire state and every type of secondary school. They are not representative in that girls who have survived their freshman year in college are above the average of their former classmates in mental ability and, also, in that women attending a girls' school represent the more conservative families of the State. Since the extracurricular programs of the secondary schools studied have received little attention the results indicate what normal girls will do when planning their own social lives. The findings in kindred fields which throw light on the problem will be summarized in the next few paragraphs.

Thrasher found five or six girl gangs while making his investigation in Chicago but he mentions only one, a group of girls who got together to play ball.¹ While a few mixed

¹Frederick M. Thrasher. *The Gang* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927), ch. xiii.

gangs were interested in immoral practices in most cases, a boy was forced out of the group as soon as he even became interested in girls. Occasionally a girl became a member of a boy group, with the status of a boy, on the basis of her ability to compete in their rougher sports. He attributes the lack of inclination of girls to form gangs to the stricter social patterns and the more complete parental oversight forced upon them.

Brown has prepared a propaganda book to offset the tendency to outlaw the Greek Letter organizations from the secondary school.² The former national president of a sorority devotes five pages of the text matter to a refutation of the common objections to high-school chapters among girls. She proposes that these clubs be made a great influence for good by having different members of the high-school staff seek membership in each so that they can be controlled from within. The chapter rolls at the end of the book show that some of the present secondary-school sororities were organized in the early eighties.

Lehman and Witty learned that the tendency of girls to form groups and to play games requiring group coöperation increases after the twelfth year and that after girls are fifteen they devote considerable attention to clubs and gangs.³ The authors also state that girls from urban centers are more specialized in their activities than are the girls from the country.

In a study reported by Miss Wellman she tells us that the girls in the Junior High School of Lincoln School of Teachers College are more inclined to limit the number of their companions than are boys with a proportionately larger amount of time spent with special friends.⁴ The

²J. Ward Brown. *American Secondary School Fraternities* (New York: The Maske Brown Company, 1913), pp. 40-44.

³Harvey C. Lehman and F. A. Witty. *The Psychology of Play Activities* (A. S. Barnes and Company, 1927.)

⁴Beth Wellman, "The School Child's Choice of Companions." *Journal of Educational Research*, XIV, September, 1926, pp. 126-132.

number ratios were sixteen to twenty-two. With the single exception of intelligence quotient, in which favorite pairs of boys were more nearly alike than girls, the closest companions among girls were most nearly alike in mental traits and scholarship. Boys, on the other hand, tended to choose friends of similar age and height and to disregard school marks.

Professor Blatz of the University of Toronto, in his unpublished lectures, says that the tendency to form unsponsored groups is about of equal strength in both sexes. The chief differences are three: that girls tend to organize their clubs at the onset of puberty while boys are then beginning to disband theirs; that girl groups are more restricted in membership and in the number of interests represented; and that the girls' clubs are shorter lived.

Since the literature on extracurricular activities is so abundant and varied only three samples will be noted here. Ayers shows us that the sponsored extracurricular interests do not fully satisfy the needs of the secondary pupil for he tends to join one outside organization for each two school groups of which he is a member. Nickel, on the basis of a study which he made in Iowa, concludes that athletics and school offices decrease a student's chance for a high-school mark while the special-interest clubs enhance this possibility.⁵ Dement found that sixty-eight per cent of the pupils in the smaller high schools of California, which were sampled in her study, were participating in sponsored groups while other observers report fewer participants.⁶ Reference will be made to these statements in later paragraphs.

⁵Clarence Earl Nickel, "Relation of Extracurricular Activities and Scholarship." Unpublished Master's Thesis, School of Education, University of Chicago, 1927.

⁶Alice L. Dement, "Values in Extracurricular Organizations in the High School," *The School Review*, XXXII, January, 1924, pp. 40-48.

THE RESULTS FROM THE QUESTIONARY

In compiling the data which follow, all replies have been discarded which indicate that the subject was thinking either of those daily meetings between chums or of those groups organized to serve school or church purposes. The task was not difficult because the blanks used were specific on this point and the questions were so arranged as to check on the accuracy of the reply. Tabulations have been made on the basis of the type of school attended and the returns represent both the junior and senior high-school periods. The country schools referred to are either rural consolidated schools or those located in villages in which a majority of the pupils come from farm homes by school bus. These school districts have been recently organized, the buildings are usually new and the teaching staff in most of them is rather young and aggressive. The villages are those small isolated places which, because of bad roads or geographical features, do not serve as a school center for a wide area. The schools are usually of poor quality and the opportunities for contacts are meager. The towns range in size from four to twenty-five thousand with populations which are unusually stable and which are usually divided by rather definite caste lines. The school personnel tends to be stable and conservative. The characteristics of the different schools suggest causes for some of the results which follow.

The number of clubs to which a single girl belonged. The table on page 214 represents all the replies received, those which follow include statements which gave the desired information. The total number of clubs reported is 364 and the total number of students who indicated that they had belonged to one or more unsponsored groups is 214 or sixty-four per cent of those who returned the blanks. Since this percentage is about the same as when the school maintains an aggressive extracurricular program, we are led to believe that the tendency to organize will show itself

NUMBER OF CLUBS TO WHICH A SINGLE GIRL BELONGED

Number of Clubs	Town		Village		Country		Total	
		Per cent		Per cent		Per cent		Per cent
1.....	61	49.2	27	82.0	35	61.4	123	57.7
2.....	34	27.8	3	9.1	18	31.6	55	25.7
3.....	17	13.9	2	6.0	4	7.0	23	10.7
4.....	7	5.6	1	3.0			8	3.7
5.....	4	3.2					4	1.9
Did not say	1	.8					1	.5
Total.....	124		33		57		214	
Average.....	1.85		1.3		1.46		1.7	

to about the same extent regardless of school policy. A second conclusion may also be justified—that the tendency to organize is strongest where the opportunity for contacts are most varied. Although no definite figures which show what portion of the sophomore class came from each of the three types of schools is available the percentage of membership is considerably higher in the town schools. Girls from farm homes usually cannot maintain a wide circle of friends because of the distance between homes, and those from the villages are forced to meet the same companions again and again no matter whether organized or not. The town girls, only, can select their own friends and here organizations are most common. The weakness of the *laissez-faire* attitude towards club life is most evident in village and country schools for without a stimulated incentive the girls do not seem to have realized the value of organized group effort.

The size of the different groups. The following tables show that the average size of the club groups are about the same no matter what the type of school. Since fewer clubs are found in country and village, the girls probably do not

SIZE OF CLUB GROUPS

Number of members	Town	Village	Country	Total
5 or less.....	10	4	11	25
6 to 10.....	61	19	27	107
11 to 15.....	39	12	10	61
16 to 20.....	23	1	3	27
Over 20.....	4	2	..	6
Total.....	137	38	51	226
Average.....	12.6	12.5	12.1	

organize until enough members are available to make the meetings interesting. The uniformity in average size is accounted for in part because the usual meeting place was in the home of one of the members where capacity is limited by the size of the parlor. The larger groups usually used special club rooms and these are more common in towns and villages than in farming communities. This observation is supported by the facts in the following table.

SIZE OF CLUBS CONTAINING MEMBERS OF BOTH SEXES

Number of members	Town	Village	Country	Total
5 to 10.....	13	2	4	19
11 to 15.....	13	..	3	16
16 to 20.....	9	1	2	12
Above 20.....	5	1	..	6
Total.....	40	4	9	53
Average.....	14.7	15.2	11.4	

Although the size of an organization of girls is limited by the number of available members where both sexes are included, the number of possible candidates for membership is doubled. The table shows that the size of the groups remains practically the same even where the membership is mixed and it suggests that size is determined by factors common to all organizations. The extracurricu-

lar clubs reported by Dement were about double the size of those represented in this study while boys are supposed to maintain larger club gangs than girls. The differences between sponsored clubs and groups of boys as compared to spontaneous organizations of girls may not be due to inherent differences in disposition. In this study the size of the rural groups was determined by the facilities for entertainment in the country homes while the increased membership in village and town is due to the presence of club rooms and public parlors which are available as meeting places. Both sponsorship by responsible adults and a suitable hall are needed for mixed clubs and both of these are usually possible when the school staff assumes direction for the social life of the school population.

Purposes for which clubs are formed. Most of the clubs were social in character. The few groups which served other than social interests contained few members and represented few interests. The following summary shows

PURPOSES REPRESENTED IN THE SPECIAL-INTEREST CLUBS

Purpose	Town	Village	Country	Total
Literary.....	7	2	4	13
Athletic.....	8	1	1	10
Sewing.....	6	7	6	19
Music and drawing.....	2	1	2	5
Mutual help with studies.....	2	..	3	5
Community service.....	1	1	..	2
Make others envious.....	1	1	..	2
Prevent boys from dominating in school activities.....	2	1	2	5
 Total.....	29	14	18	61
Average membership...	11	8.2	11.7	11.3

that girls cannot be left to their own devices in developing avocational pursuits for only an eighth of the total number of clubs were really based on hobbies. Boys are more

varied in their interests than these girls seem to have been and while the girls were most interested in social functions and in interests growing out of class work boys care least for these. Community service is almost ignored as it is mentioned only twice. Even then the good deeds were mixed with pranks and social functions when the club really got together. Further light on purpose will be gained from a later table.

Duration of membership. The average duration is a little over two years for all types of schools with the village clubs holding together only two thirds as long as the others. Although the shorter period of association in the

NUMBER OF YEARS EACH SOPHOMORE WAS ASSOCIATED WITH HER CLUB

Number of years	Town	Village	Country	Total clubs
1.....	49	22	13	34
2.....	67	12	28	107
3.....	25	4	6	35
4.....	29	1	12	42
5.....	6	..	2	8
6.....	1	..	1	2
8.....	1	1
Total.....	178	39	62	279
Average years.....	2.35	1.6	2.44	

village schools may have been due to chance, it is probably a reflection of the personal antagonisms which intermittently prevent friendly contact between given individuals. The greatest contrast between boy and girl groups is suggested by the table. Practically all the girls were group members during their last years in high school which means that the clubs were organized after the adolescent change was well under way. Boys, on the other hand, form their groups at nine or ten and disband them after the middle teens. One of the reasons for the shorter

duration of membership with girls is the relatively small number of groups dominated by a special interest. While the purely social group serves a real need, the club dominated by a hobby has more than twice the chance of surviving longer than a two-year period. Practically none of the memberships seem to have extended into the grammar grades and only one group out of ten continued to live after the original members left school. The organizations seem to have merely served to provide an incentive for regular contact between friends.

Effect of group membership on relations to the remainder of the school. Most of the girls thought that their group associations had no appreciable effect on their general school contacts. Where conduct was changed the

REPORTED EFFECT OF CLUB ASSOCIATIONS ON INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS

Effect	Town	Village	Country	Total	Per Cent
Increased circle of friends.....	44	11	20	75	55.8
Stimulated mental life.....	13	1	7	21	15.6
Narrowed circle of friends.....	26	1	6	33	24.5
Kept sexes apart.....	1	1	1	3	2.2
Stimulated contact with boys....	1	1	..	2	1.5
Total.....	85	15	34	134	..

effect was usually favorable. The relations with girls who were not members seem to have been quite congenial, for they were often invited to club parties. Only a few contacts provided mental stimulation and the groups represented were usually literary or special interest clubs as Nickel learned from his studies in Iowa. The social effect of the village organizations was especially fortunate in that the unsponsored contacts seem to have counteracted somewhat the antagonisms of parents which are so often present in these small centers.

The questionary asked for a description of the conflicts which occurred between parents or school staff and club members. The replies throw further light on the results of contacts within the groups. To judge from the vicious names which the members gave to a sixth of their organizations the relations must have bordered on open conflict. In the State where these clubs were found, high-school fraternities were illegal so that the attitude of the principals was one of watchful ignorance. Six of the twenty-six reported conflicts would probably not have occurred had the members of the school staff exercised ordinary intelligence at all times as, for example, when pranks on April first were permitted to disrupt the school or when curious principals attempted to learn secrets by the use of public punishments. Four really serious conflicts arose when members helped one another to "cut" unpopular classes and to absent themselves from school to attend ball games in neighboring towns. Most of the remaining difficulties arose when the social activities of the groups took too much time away from lesson preparation. Where the clubs were of mixed membership the probability of conflict increased about three times.

Probably girl gangs have received little attention in the past because they have been managed with so little outside friction. One of the reasons for the greater tractability of girl groups is that the usual meeting places are in the homes of the members. One of the groups which had a secret meeting place was composed of both sexes but the hikes and excursions of the members were not looked upon with disfavor. The secret activities of girls when alone consisted in wearing clothing borrowed from brothers, playing with dolls, rehearsing amateur plays before presenting them at parties, and perfecting plans for increasing the influence of girls in school politics. Apparently adults can, with perfect peace of mind, continue to permit high-schools girls to manage their own activities.

CONCLUSIONS

The tendencies of boys and girls to form groups are about equally strong, the chief differences being that while the tendency is strongest in preadolescent boys, the urge usually does not appear until midadolescence in girls, and that the interests of girls do not seem to be as varied as those of boys. Probably the smaller number of members in the girls' clubs are due to limitations in meeting places.

The tendency to organize into groups is unchanged where the school maintains an active extracurricular program. The chief difference is that the sponsored clubs represent a greater number of interests.

The tendency seems to be strongest where the opportunities for contacts are greatest and least where the need for such contacts are most urgent.

The clubs were sanely managed and the interests served were wholesome. The emphasis should be directed partly away from social to civic and avocational needs.

The whole topic of spontaneous organizations among girls lies in practically a virgin field which deserves more attention than investigators are inclined to give to it.

EDUCATION IN SOVIET ARMENIA

GEORGE M. WILCOX

I

ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION

"In Czarist times Armenia was merely a buffer state," said a high official in Eriwan, the capital of the Republic of Armenia. "No effort was made to develop it agriculturally, industrially, or educationally." The vast military barracks in Leninakan, formerly Alexandropol, which have been used by the Near East Relief for the past ten years to house thousands of orphans, are evidence of the chief interest of the former régime in that region. The problems of the present educational administration in its efforts to build a school system suited to the needs of the country, are consequently even greater than if they had to deal only with the reconstruction of a system disorganized by wars, deportations, earthquakes, and other calamities.

When one realizes that in 1921 seventy-three per cent of the population of Armenia were illiterate, the scope of the problem may be grasped. Since then 35,000 children and adults have passed through the courses of instruction each year. The population of Armenia is estimated at present to be not less than one million. Some of the difficulties that have had to be met are lack of funds, an inadequate number of teachers, and poorly trained teachers. An asset is the very genuine and universal love of education for which Armenians have been noteworthy. This trait has made it possible to enroll large numbers of adults in educational courses, especially during the long winters.

The administration of education in Armenia is highly centralized under the Commissariat of Education. Although efforts have been made to stimulate initiative and responsibility in the various districts, the leadership at this time of construction comes from the Commissar (Minister)

of Education and his able assistants. Farsighted and definite plans have been made for the development of education throughout the Republic. Objectives have been clearly formulated and include compulsory elementary education, much emphasis on vocational education, and literacy for all adults. Fundamental questions such as the nature and extent of the natural resources, kinds of soil, possible products of different parts of the country, amount of rainfall in different regions, and the types of industrial development suitable to the country, are being studied on experimental farms and in laboratories.

The Commissariat of Education is organized in three divisions to administer its three principal types of activities. The Division of Social Education has charge of the general education of children between the ages of three and seventeen years. The Division of Vocational Education directs the work of agricultural schools, industrial schools, teacher-training institutions, and all other vocational schools. The Division of Adult Education administers the political education of adults and the general education of illiterate adults. It has charge of the educational work in clubs, unions, theaters, and village centers. All workers of every type are members of unions. Each union is responsible for the removal of illiteracy from among its members. The Department for the Welfare of Women gets results through the organization of educational societies among women. The army trains illiterate recruits during their term of service. Wherever there is a school it is used in the evenings during the six months of winter for the education of adults.

The preparation and publication of textbooks is completely under the control of the Commissariat of Education, except that all material for publication must be approved by the Committee for Political Education. During the past few years there has been frequent revision of textbooks to bring them up-to-date and to adapt them to the

"complex" method of teaching. This has entailed considerable expense because textbooks have had to be replaced before they were worn out, but this expense is borne by the parents of school children. It has also put a heavy load on the Government Printing office which has not been able to keep up with the demand for new textbooks. All books must be printed in the new orthography which is a simplification of the old Armenian alphabet.

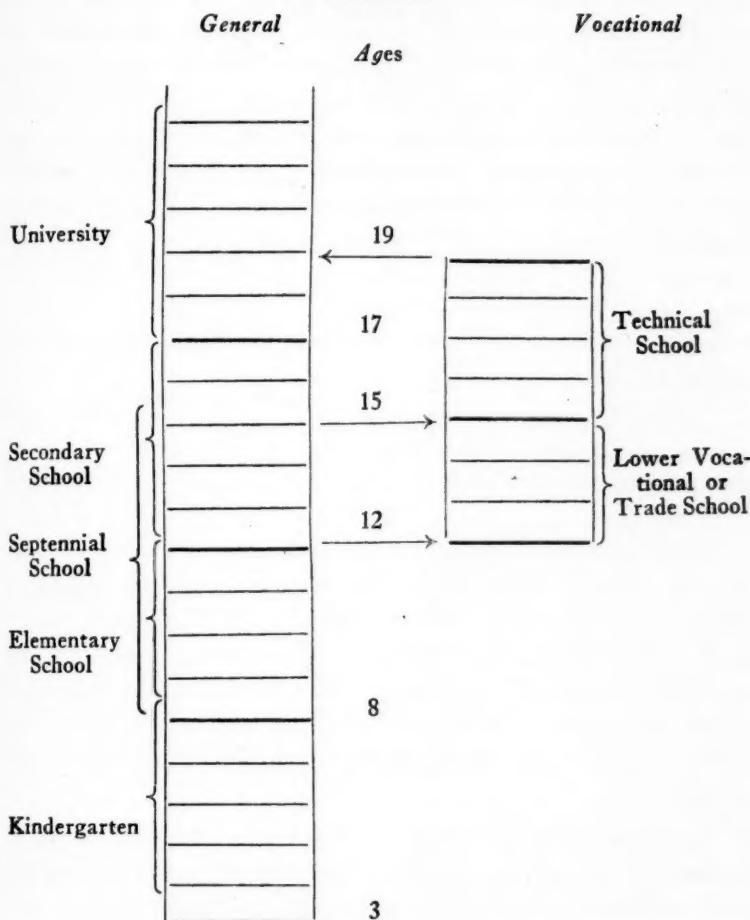
The status of teachers in Armenia is very favorable both professionally and socially. Teachers are all members of the Professional Union and the regulations with regard to salary, vacations, and working conditions in general are governed by the Union. The attitude of the Government in regard to teachers is wise because it makes the profession attractive to young men and women who are training for a vocation. Although education in the elementary schools is compulsory now, there are not enough teachers to put this provision fully into effect. By 1933-1934 it will be necessary to have 4000 teachers and compulsory education will then be enforced throughout the Republic. With the position of teachers so secure, however, there is danger that some of the incentive for professional self-improvement may be reduced. Although success in service is supposed to be one criterion for promotion, as a matter of fact it depends largely on training and number of years of experience. The Government recognizes the importance of stimulating teachers to further professional advancement and teachers' institutes are planned for each year. In the fall of 1926, for instance, the plan was to use the first two weeks of the school year beginning September first for teachers' institutes. It was decided by the Teachers' Professional Union that these meetings should be held during the school year instead of during the vacation. The reason given was that the percentage of sickness among teachers in general is about 5 per cent, whereas among Armenian teachers who have

undergone many hardships during the past few years, the percentage is 8.6. Consequently they needed all of the vacation time for rest and recuperation. The government plan for the improvement of teachers in Armenia is to have the teachers in groups of villages organize as a council with a chairman. The chairmen of several councils are brought together and are taught the program which they are to pass on to their groups. These councils meet weekly in summer and biweekly in winter. They work on courses of study, distribute school supplies, discuss methods of teaching and questions of discipline and sanitation, control the reading of children, arrange for school assemblies and concerts, and organize excursions.

The general plan of organization of public schools in Armenia is shown graphically in the accompanying chart. Children enter the kindergarten at the age of three and continue until they are eight years old. In the lower years the kindergartens are really chiefly *crèches*. Their purpose is primarily to take care of the children of peasant families to release the mother for work outside of the home. The Government finds that considerable education of parents is necessary to put this plan into effect because parents are accustomed to keep their children at home in order to make use of their work. They must be convinced that it is better for the children to be cared for in a school. In Czarist times there were no kindergartens in Armenia and the schools now in existence have been established since 1921. Because of the small number of trained kindergarten teachers, many of the schools do not have a very modern program. The kindergartens in Erivan, however, are excellent. Government officials are proud of the up-to-date methods employed in some of their schools.

The four-year elementary course is shown in Table I. This course is followed also in the village schools with the exception of art and Russian. If the teacher can teach these subjects, they are included; if not, the time goes to

CHART OF THE ARMENIAN GOVERNMENT SCHOOL SYSTEM



Note: The arrows indicate the points at which transfers can be made from the general to the vocational schools and *vice versa*.

the other school work. The national languages in different parts of Armenia include Armenian, Russian, Greek, Syrian, Tartar, and Kurdish. An alphabet has been evolved for Syrian and one for Kurdish. When they are approved by the Institute of Science in Petrograd, textbooks will be

published for use in schools for those nationalities. The national language of the group served by the school is used as the language of instruction, but children who are not Armenians must study Armenian also as the constitutional language. This subject takes four hours a week at the expense of the other subjects which are taught by the "complex" method. Recreation is not listed in Table I as a part of the elementary-school course, but is provided outside of regular school hours.

TABLE I
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SCHEDULE IN ARMENIA

		Grades			
		I	II	III	IV
National Language					
Social Science					
Natural History					
Mathematics		24	24	20	20
Art: Singing and Drawing				4	4
Russian				4	4

The first four subjects are not assigned separate periods, but are taught together by the complex method which is similar to the integrated instruction (*Gesamtunterricht*) in German elementary schools. The complex method of teaching is used throughout the elementary school and it is planned to use it also in the lower vocational school. The development of the various complexes is described in a later article.

The plan of organization provides for a five-year secondary-school course for children between the ages of twelve and seventeen, following the four-year elementary school. The common secondary schools are at present septennial schools with three years above the elementary school. These schools have been organized recently in several localities because the school system has been in operation just long enough now for numbers of children to be ready for the secondary course. The time schedule used in Near East Relief Septennial Schools, which follows closely the schedule in Government schools, is shown in Table II.

TABLE II
SEPTENNIAL SCHOOL SCHEDULE IN ARMENIA
NEAR EAST RELIEF SCHOOLS

Subject	Year		
	V	VI	VII
I. SOCIAL			
1. Armenian	5	5	5
2. Russian	5	4	4
3. English	4	4	4
4. History }	4	4	4
5. Sociology }			
6. Geography	2	3	3
7. Singing	2	2	2
8. Drawing	2	2	2
9. Auditorium	2	2	2
II. BIOLOGICAL			
1. Botany	4		
2. Anatomy and Hygiene			3
III. SCIENTIFIC AND MATHEMATICAL			
1. Physics	2	2	2
2. Chemistry		2	2
3. Geology		3	
4. Mathematics	4	4	4
	<hr/> 36	<hr/> 37	<hr/> 37

The only difference between the schedule shown in Table II and that followed in the Government schools is that English is not taught in the latter. It is approved, however, by the Commissariat of Education because, as stated by a high official of the Department, "We consider English the most useful international language."

The method of teaching in nonvocational secondary schools is still by subjects instead of using the complex method. It is expected that this method will continue in the general secondary schools.

There is great need for textbooks in the secondary subjects. Some of the teachers in the Near East Relief schools have been working out courses in the sciences. The plan is to use them in mimeograph form for classroom instruction and later to print them for general use in Armenia. This can be done only by coöoperating closely with Government officials to ensure that the courses are suitable for general use.

In the summer of 1926, when the writer spent three months in Armenia studying the educational system, there were as yet no fully organized Government secondary schools. The Near East relief, however, maintained a Teacher-Training School, providing opportunity for the brightest of the older orphan boys and girls to complete the last two years of the high-school course and to take one additional year devoted largely to normal courses and practice teaching. The schedule of subjects in years VIII and IX are the same as the proposed schedule for the last two years of the Government high schools, with the exception of the teacher-training subjects and English. The schedule of the Near East Relief High and Normal School is shown in Table III.

TABLE III
SCHEDULE OF THE HIGH AND NORMAL SCHOOL
NEAR EAST RELIEF

Subjects		VIII	Year IX	X
I. SOCIAL				
1. Armenian and Literature.....	4	4	4	
2. Russian	4	4	4	
3. English	4	3	3	
4. History	4	4	2	
5. Economics		2		
6. Government Law		1		
7. Economic Geography.....	3			
8. Drawing and Singing.....	2	2	2	
9. Auditorium	2	2	2	
II. BIOLOGICAL				
1. General Biology	3			
2. Physiology and Hygiene.....	2	1		
III. SCIENTIFIC AND MATHEMATICAL				
1. Physics	2	2	2	
2. Chemistry	3	3		
3. Astronomy			2	
4. Mathematics	4	4	3	
IV. TEACHER TRAINING				
1. Psychology		3		
2. Pedagogy	2	3	2	
3. Methods			3	
4. Practice Teaching			10	
	—	39	38	39

In the last two years of some of the five-year Government high schools there will be diversified teaching including such courses as training for commercial coöperatives, Government offices, municipal offices, general office work, teaching, and other vocational activities. In agricultural districts these diversified courses will include agricultural training. These courses are for students who will not go on to the university. Thus the high school as well as the trade and technical schools will provide definite vocational training for those who want it.

Special schools which have been organized for laboring people and others who have not had educational opportunities require only five years for the nine years of the regular elementary and secondary courses. Rate of progress in these schools depends on the capacity of the individual.

The general plan of organization as shown in the chart provides for two grades of vocational schools, a three-year lower vocational school for children between the ages of twelve and fifteen, followed by a four-year technical school. At present the latter provides courses for only two years. The schedule of subjects for the lower vocational or trade schools is shown in Table IV, on page 230.

Each of the trade courses is continued for three years. Not all of them, however, are taught in each school; the different schools specialize on certain of the trades. Courses are being worked out on the complex method, and textbooks are in process of preparation. In the Near East Relief Trade School at Leninakan considerable progress has been made in the construction of trade courses on the unit operation method, based on the analysis of trades as practised in Armenia.

The importance of agriculture in Armenia has been recognized by the Government. An agricultural school and experimental farm is in operation not far from Eriwan. The general subjects for the agricultural school course are

TABLE IV

SCHEDULE OF THE LOWER VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN ARMENIA

General Subjects	Years: I	II	III	Trade Courses
I. PRODUCTION CYCLE				
1. Nature Study.....	2			1. Chauffeurs and Mechanics
2. Mathematics				2. Electricity, Electro-Mechanics, Electro-Technical Work
a. Arithmetic and Accounting	3	2	2	3. Painting and Plastering
b. Geometry	2	2	1	4. Masonry and Construction
3. Physics and Chemistry	4	3		5. Locksmith and Wheelwright Work
4. Technology		2	2	6. Carpentry and Cabinet Making
5. Record and Cost Accounting			1	7. Tailoring
6. Mechanics		2	2	
7. Mechanical Drawing	3	2		
8. Shopwork	12	15	24	
II. GENERAL CYCLE				
1. Native Language and Office Work..	3	3		
2. Sociology	2	2		
3. Organization of Production			2	
4. Study of Various Countries with Emphasis on Certain Specialties	3	2		
5. Code of Labor Laws and Professional Ethics			2	
6. Hygiene and Physiology for Workers		2	2	
	<hr/> 34	<hr/> 37	<hr/> 41	

similar to those of the trade schools as shown in Table IV, but practical work in farming and animal husbandry takes the place of shopwork.

At the top of the system of Government schools, as shown in the chart, is the National University at Erivan. It is organized in four departments—agriculture, law, medicine, and engineering. The medical and engineering courses require five years for completion, the other two courses four years; but an additional year of practical ex-

perience is required in each of the courses, so that they are really six and five years in length, respectively. In 1926, there were about 500 students in agriculture, 300 each in medicine and engineering, and 200 in the law school, making a total of 1300 in round numbers.

Thus, when its plans of organization are fully accomplished, the Armenian Government will provide free education from the preschool *crèche* through the university. There is consistent emphasis on vocational education throughout the system. The complex method of teaching and the work of Near East Relief schools, which have contributed much to the educational development of Armenia, are described in a later article.

ATTITUDES AS A FACTOR OF TEACHING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

A. SCOTT LEE

What are the attitudes of students in normal schools towards their studies? How do these attitudes hinder or hasten school progress? Are these attitudes innate, and directly related to what Woodworth¹ calls "primary likes and dislikes," or are they acquired? If acquired, what agencies lead to their acquisition, and when and where are they made? How effective is the normal school in changing negative attitudes to positive mental interests in the school life and the subject matter of the curriculum?

These questions are vital to the well functioning of any educational institution, and especially so to the normal school. Any effort made towards finding their answers and making adjustments accordingly, would doubtless be time well spent. Educational progress suggests that we must consider more how students are affected in life interests by what we try to teach them.

The data used in this study to throw some light on a part of the questions raised were secured from the questionnaire replies of eight hundred students of the Jamaica Training School, New York City, December, 1926. The questionnaire in full and the conditions under which it was given were reported by the author in the *School Review*, January, 1928. This study is based on data not fully treated in the above article, and which were obtained from student answers to the following items of the questionnaire:

"What were your favorite subjects in the elementary school?"

"What were your favorite subjects in the high school?"

"What subjects in the training school have been easiest for you? Why?"

¹R. S. Woodworth, *Psychology, A Study of Mental Life*, p. 180.

"What subjects in the training school have been most difficult for you? Why?"

"What subjects in the training school do you like best? Why?"

"What subjects in the training school do you like least? Why?"

The percentage distributions of subjects liked "best," subjects liked "least," most "difficult" subjects, and "easy" subjects are given in tables I, II, III, and IV below.

TABLE I

Percentage distribution of subjects liked "best," rated by eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Arithmetic	8
Sociology	17
Psychology	28
Reading	3
Literature	1
Speech Improvement	1
Grammar	1
Physical Training	5
Music	8
Drawing	8
Nature Study	4
Penmanship	1
Observation and Practice	1
Library Practice	1
Geography	4
History	6
Management	1
Methods of Thinking.....	2
	100

Typical reasons given for liking subjects "best" were: "Like the teacher," "Teacher is interesting," "The teacher is interested in her subject," "The teacher is enthusiastic," "The teacher is pleasant," "Teacher is agreeable," "The teacher is alive," "The teacher has 'pep,'" "The subject is new," "Subject gives something to think about," "Subject will help me," "I can apply the subject,"

"The subject is related to life," "Can use it in teaching," "We can discuss things in class," "I feel free in the class."

TABLE II
Percentage distribution of "easy" subjects, rated by
eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Arithmetic	17
Sociology	15
Psychology	19
Reading	1
Literature	6
Grammar	1
Physical Training	4
Music	11
Drawing	8
Nature Study	7
Penmanship	2
Geography	4
History	4
Methods of Thinking	1
Observation and Practice.....	0
Speech Improvement	0
Management	0
	100

Typical reasons given for rating the subjects "easy" were: "The teacher makes things clear," "The teacher puts enthusiasm into her work," "Teacher makes things real," "Teacher holds good reviews," "Teacher illustrates a lot," "Subject matter is worth while," "The subject matter is interesting," "Can make good grades in subject," "I have a knack for the subject," "Subject suits my mental constitution," "It is easy for me," "Always liked the subject," "Comes natural to me."

The percentage distribution of reasons for liking subjects "best" and for rating them "easy" may be classified under the following three headings:

	PER CENT
1. Favorable liking for the teacher.....	60
2. A liking for the subject matter.....	27
3. Ability to succeed in the subject.....	13
	100

Perhaps the most surprising element in the above summary is the prominent place occupied by the teacher as the most important factor in forming positive attitudes towards studies. We should expect this to be the case in the elementary school, and to some extent in the high school, but in the training school we should look for a larger percentage of reasons less personal than the ones given.

TABLE III
Percentage distribution of subjects liked "least," rated by eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Arithmetic	6
Sociology	6
Psychology	3
Reading	8
Speech Improvement	17
Grammar	2
Physical Training	1
Music	12
Drawing	19
Nature Study	6
Penmanship	6
Observation and Practice.....	1
Library Practice	3
History	8
Methods of Thinking.....	2
Literature	0
Geography	0
Management	0
	100

The reasons given for the ratings in Table III find typical expression in the following statements: "I dislike the teacher," "The teacher has it in for me," "The teacher is harsh," "I can't please the teacher," "The teacher drives too much," "Too much memory work," "Too much note taking," "I can't use it in teaching," "Do not see need of the subject," "It does not apply to life," "Too much theory," "Not practical," "Subject too dry," "Will not help me as a teacher."

TABLE IV
Percentage distribution of most "difficult" subjects
rated by eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Music	18
Arithmetic	11
Physical Training	11
Psychology	9
Reading	6
Literature	6
Speech Improvement	6
Geography	6
Nature Study	5
Library Practice	5
Sociology	4
Drawing	3
History	3
Management	3
Grammar	1
Penmanship	1
Observation and Practice.....	1
Methods of Thinking.....	1
	100

The subjects were "difficult" because: "The teacher does not help," "The teacher hurries too much," "I don't like the teacher," "Class goes too fast," "Hard parts are not explained," "Questions are not welcome," "Hard parts are not illustrated," "I dislike the subject," "I always hated the subject," "Subject was always difficult," "I never could get along in it," "I have no aptitude for the subject," "Subject not suited to me," "Do not have time enough to spend on it."

The reasons for disliking subjects and for finding them difficult, illustrated under Tables III and IV, may be grouped under the following headings:

	PER CENT
1. Unfavorable attitude towards, or dislike for the teacher	20
2. A dislike for the subject matter.....	21
3. Lack of ability to get along in the subject.....	59
	100

From the above summaries it may be inferred that the teacher is a strong factor in stimulating students to form attitudes towards the subjects of the curriculum; in the last summary, negative in 20 per cent of the cases. It may be comforting to observe that the teacher as a factor in forming attitudes, is positive in 60 per cent of the cases and only negative in 20 per cent of them, but the questions suggest themselves: (1) How may we reduce the negatives? (2) Should mature students in a vocational school "like" subjects, and find them "easy" because of their favorable attitudes towards the teacher? If students like or dislike subjects because they have personal feelings towards instructors, is there an indication that the significance of the subjects has not been related to the future vocational success of the students? May the subject-matter of the training-school curricula be sufficiently motivated because of its intrinsic values so that it will be liked for its usefulness, and the opportunities it offers in the preparation of successful teachers? Can the subjects be made so vital that training-school students may see their potency and worth for enriching the lives of their future students, and as a means for making their own life experiences more meaningful in art, science, and culture?

If likes or dislikes for normal-school subjects are formed even in twenty per cent of cases, because of the personal qualities or characteristics of instructors, would it be helpful for teachers in normal schools occasionally to take an inventory of their teaching personalities with a view to finding out just what qualities were helpful or negative in stimulating subject attitudes on the part of their students?

It may be noted from the summary of Tables III and IV that subjects were "disliked" or found "difficult" in fifty-nine per cent of the cases because of the lack of ability on the part of the student to get along well or succeed with them. No data are at hand to enumerate or to analyze the reasons for these self-appraised disabilities of the stu-

dents, or to trace their origins. Where the same "favorite" or "liked" subjects were mentioned on the three levels of elementary school, high school, and training school, the data indicate that in fifty-three per cent of the cases, the subjects liked "best" in the training school, were also "favorite" subjects in the elementary and high school. This may suggest that positive subject attitudes, in many instances, are formed rather early in school life. This may also be true for negative subject attitudes, but the data do not warrant such an inference. It is to be regretted that we have no information on the "primary dislikes" and the instances of "conditioned" reflexes responsible for the twenty-one per cent of negative attitudes toward the content of the subjects mentioned in the summary. Perhaps in the near future we shall learn more about such problems when we realize as teachers the tremendous social forces and educational drives resulting from students' likes and dislikes in schools, and be stimulated to devise new plans or revise old ones for directing what is perhaps the most lasting and consequential residuum of school life.

In conclusion, this study like most studies based on questionnaires, can be at most only suggestive of more refined methods, or more conclusive data, or of other questions needing answers or of problems needing solution. Perhaps the data presented here may lead us to ask whether or not we are giving sufficient emphasis to the subjects of study in our training schools as to make them vital factors in forming positive professional and life attitudes. Secondly, How may we find out most accurately the qualities of our teaching personality that are so potent in forming positive or negative attitudes on the part of the students towards the subjects we teach? And finally, as teachers should we be as much concerned with students' attitudes towards subject matter as we are with the quantity of it that they are supposed to assimilate?

A GUIDE FOR SOCIAL INTERACTION STUDIES OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

L. D. ZELENY

Since teachers are coming to make individual studies of social interactions in school and community, they may find a guide for such studies helpful. A guide for such work, adapted from many sources, is presented in this paper. It has been found usable.

I. GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

All items should be collected with extreme care and neatness because others may need to study the data. The report should be in narrative form. All sources of information should be presented. Completeness is desirable.

II. IDENTIFICATION

Identification sign? Real name? Color? Date of birth? (how verified) Child's address? Living with whom? Phone? Religious preference? Achievement in school subjects as measured by standard tests?

III. THE OCCASION FOR THE STUDY

Indicate the present relationships between the teacher and pupil, pupil and other pupils, pupil and parents. In the case of a problem child indicate what the child had done and what has been done to him in return.

IV. DETAILED BEHAVIOR

(Give details under appropriate items.)

a. Ethical conduct.¹ Stealing? Running away? Tantrums? Sex difficulties? Obstinacy? Repression? Interests? Companions? Attitude toward authority? Lying? Obscene notes? Cheating? Speech difficulties?

b. Emotion behavior.² Even tempered or moody? Easily discouraged or persistent? Generally depressed or

¹"Outline for Social History" (mimeographed), Minneapolis Child Guidance Clinic, 1927.

²Willard Olson, "Behavior Rating Scale," Bureau of Education Research, University of Minnesota.

cheerful? Sympathetic? Hot-headed or self-controlled? Worrying or carefree? Coöperative or non-coöperative? Suspicious or trustful? Calm or excitable? Negativistic or suggestible? Impulsive or cautious?

c. Social adaptation.² Quiet or talkative? Shy or bold? Repulsive or magnetic? Flexible or inflexible? Rude or courteous? Self-assertive? Criticize others?

d. Physical bearing.² Repulsive or admirable? Weak or strong? Easily fatigued or vigorous? Sissy or masculine? Tomboy or clinging vine? (if girl) Fearful or daredevil? Slovenly or neat in appearance?

e. Mental attitudes.² Absorbed or alert? Attention easily distracted or good? Slow or quick thinker? Lazy or active? Indifferent or interested?

V. PERSONAL HEALTH DATA¹

Height? Weight?³¹ Posture? Gait? Deformities? Skull? Jaw? Ears? Eyes? Hair? Skin? Scars? Tonsils? Adenoids? Heart? Hour of retiring? Hour of rising? Night terrors? Restless? Appetite? Hours for meals? Food fads? Coffee? Tea? Nail biting? Thumb sucking? Enuresis? What has been done about these things? Any effects?

VI. SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS³

a. Group memberships of the child. Primary? Secondary? Nominal? Vital? Formal? Informal? Is the child isolated? Behavior patterns of the groups with which he associates? How does the group control him? Others? In what groups has the child been in the past?

b. Social backgrounds of the school. Cultural patterns of the population? Races? Social classes? Educational levels? Interactions of the school with other community institutions.

¹Frederic M. Thrasher, "Social Backgrounds and Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, October, 1927.

- c. The home (to be entered only with the principal's permission). General condition? Number of rooms? Number in family? Sleeping arrangements? Method of discipline? Frequency of church attendance? Family recreational practices? Ages and educational levels of other children in the family? Physical condition, education, and religion of father and mother?
- d. Social attitudes. What are the attitudes of parents, brothers, sisters, companions, teachers, and other adults towards the child?
- e. The school. Progress record? If failing, why?

VII. THE PUPIL-TEACHER INTERVIEW

- a. Techniques for interviewing.⁴ (1) Let the child feel "he is dealing with a friend who knows the worst (or best) about him and is still a friend." (2) Discuss the child's problems "with him from his point of view." (3) "Take for granted all the known aspects of the child's difficulties." (4) Be nonshockable. (5) Search for strength and build on it. (6) Use clear low voice. (7) Do not hurry the child. (8) Assume the child is willing to coöperate. (9) Adjust yourself to the child's mood. (10) Talk the child's language. (11) Recognize the good in the child. (12) Help the child to make his own decisions. (13) Do not let the child feel isolated. (14) Minimize the seriousness of the child's position. (15) Do not be afraid to smile. (16) Remember the "yes response" technique.

- b. Factors to look for in an interview.⁵ Child's idea of success in school. Why does he like or dislike school? His teachers? His classmates? His companions? What are his ambitions? Can he scrap? What does he like or dis-

⁴Pearl Salisbury, "Techniques in Case Work," *The Family*, July, 1927; Lucy Wright, "The Worker's Attitude as an Element in Social Case Work," *Ibid.*, July, 1924; Mary G. Brisley, "An Attempt to Articulate Processes," *Ibid.*, vol. 5, pp. 157-161; Helen P. Kington, "How Do We Affect Leadership," *Ibid.*, vol. 6, pp. 290-292, and others.

⁵"Psychiatric Examination of a Child," *Mental Hygiene*, vol. 10, pp. 300-306.

like at home? Whom does he like and dislike most at home? Why? Of what does he day dream? Are his chums of the same or opposite sex? Can the child explain his misconduct? Of what is he afraid? Why? Behavior of child during the interview (facial expression, gestures, tone of voice, bodily position). Ambitions? Age of occupational fixation.

VIII. SOCIO-ANALYSIS

The descriptive terms used may show process of conflict, supplementation, submission, withdrawal, or avoidance.⁶ The explanation should show these processes in specific detail—how one process leads to another. When behavior can not be explained in functional terms it may be theoretically accounted for in terms of the four desires for recognition, response, new experience, and security.⁷ The terms, transference, sublimation, compensation, rationalization, Narcissus complex, Oedipus complex, electra complex, and inferiority or failure complex may also be convenient.⁸

IX. SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

The socio-analysis may be suggestive of other social stimuli which may cause different responses. Certain factors in the social or subsocial environment should be changed to effect changed behavior in the child. The test of the analysis is socially adjusted behavior.

⁶E. H. Sutherland, *Lectures*.

⁷W. I. Thomas, *The Unadjusted Girl*.

⁸E. W. Burgess, "Outline for Social Analysis" (mimeographed).

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house for (1) information about current research projects of interest in educational sociology and (2) ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research.*

New York Society for Experimental Study of Education

The New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education is an organization for the scientific study of educational problems. It has a membership of more than fifteen hundred men and women recruited from all ranks of the teaching profession. Its aim is threefold: (1) To afford a clearing house of ideas for those who are engaged in experimental studies in education. (2) To spread the experimental idea in education, to report the results of work done elsewhere, and to interest educators in the experimental method of attack on their problems. (3) To plan and carry on experimental studies in education.

It brings together educational specialists from Columbia University, New York University, City College, Hunter College, and the superintendents, principals, and teachers of New York City schools, and focuses their attention upon experimental studies in education. It is organized into thirty-seven sections, representing the important fields of elementary and secondary education.

Some of the thirty-seven sections of the Society of particular interest to educational sociology are as follows: Backward Children, Gifted Children, Character Education, Vocational Guidance, Industrial Education, Organization of High Schools, Physical Education, Maladjusted Children, Health Education, Junior High-School Problems, and Adult Education.

Further information as to the work of the society may be obtained from Mr. J. Carleton Bell, Townsend Harris

Hall, Amsterdam Avenue and 138th Street, New York City.

National Scholarships in Child Development

The Committee on Child Development of the National Research Council is administering national scholarships in Child Development which are awarded by the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial.

The scholarships aim to prepare qualified workers who will increase scientific knowledge of the child along various lines and bring this knowledge to parents and others concerned with child life.

The appointments prepare for research and practice in fields connected with the mental and physical health and growth of children and lead to the following types of service:

1. Research in child development, all fields.
2. Resident instruction in child development and welfare in school, college, and university.
3. Child welfare service in clinics, institutions, social service, health organizations, schools, nursery-school teaching, etc.
4. Parent education, in field organization, study group, leadership, extension programs, and resident instruction in college or university.

Among the specific fields of investigation open to scholars are anatomy, anthropology, anthropometry, education, genetics, health, mental hygiene, nutrition, orthopedics, pediatrics, physical education, physiology, psychology, and sociology, all as applied to the study of the young child and to parent education.

In the training of scholars a well-rounded program in child development is sought, rather than the satisfaction of university requirements for advanced degrees. Consequently, scholars are not always able to apply the full term of scholarship study towards meeting requirements for the doctor's degree.

The scholarships are open to college graduates of the United States and Canada with at least one year of graduate work who have had training in sciences basic to the study of child development. A limited number of scholarships are available to men who are appointed in exceptional cases.

The basic scholarship stipend is \$1,000 for nine months, with an option of an additional \$200 for a summer session of six weeks.

Further details with reference to these scholarships may be obtained from Dr. L. R. Marston, Executive Secretary, Committee on Child Development, National Research Council, Washington, D. C.

New York State Crime Commission's Study of Truancy

The Sub-Commission on Causes of the New York State Crime Commission composed of William Lewis Butcher, Chairman, Jane M. Hoey, and Joseph M. McGinnies, which has been conducting a series of social studies on the causes of crime under the direction of Harry M. Shulman, Research Worker, has published its report on 201 truants in New York City schools.

This study of truancy was made possible through the splendid coöperation of the Bureau of Attendance of the New York City Board of Education. The schedules were drawn up by the Sub-Committee on Causes and the clerical work of preparing all the tables was done by the Bureau of Attendance. This study consists of an analysis of 201 cases chosen at random from those who had been persistent truants during 1926. The material was gathered by means of a questionnaire which was filled out by the attendance officers from information obtained from the children themselves, from parents, from the teachers, and from school records. The total number of children committed as truants during 1926 was 626. The number committed during 1926 was above average; therefore, the group of cases studied represented one-third of the total group committed.

to truant school during any year and was for that reason regarded as an adequate sampling of cases. The group represented only children in the Borough of Manhattan.

The report takes up the home data of truants and their parental conditions, the characteristics of the individual truant, and the reasons for his maladjustment in school.

The committee has recently completed a study of 250 truants in New York City who were followed up in the five years subsequent to their first commitment to the truant school to determine the nature of their future behavior difficulties. This report will be available shortly.

Institute for Social Research

The seventh annual meeting of the Institute for Social Research was held at the University of Chicago, July 25 to 28, 1928, under the auspices of the Society for Social Research. Papers were presented by L. L. Thurstone, Edward Sapir, Ellsworth Faris, and Herbert Blumer. A number of reports on research projects now in process were presented and four round tables were organized as follows: The Ecology of Urban and Rural Communities, led by Jesse F. Steiner, Social Movements and the Political Process, by Robert E. Park, The Family, by E. Franklin Frazier, and Methodology, by Floyd M. House.

Hanover Conference, Social Science Research Council

The annual summer conference of the Social Science Research Council was held at Hanover, New Hampshire, from August 18 to September 1, 1928. The following committees reported during the conference: Corporate Relations, Population, Interracial Relations, and Scientific Method in the Social Sciences.

BOOK REVIEWS

School and Society in Chicago, by GEORGE S. COUNTS.
New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1928.

Among the many books which come to the hands of the reviewer, one finds generally that most of them are restatements of what has already been written by some one else. It is therefore refreshing to find an author who strikes a new note and emphasizes a new point of view. Professor Counts has succeeded in taking a body of facts with which every educator is more or less familiar and giving them an original interpretation. Using the experiences of Mr. McAndrew, superintendent of the Chicago schools, as a basis, the author has vividly and dramatically analyzed the social forces operating upon the administrator of public schools in Chicago. Moreover, he has made clear the fact that these forces are not merely operative on the shores of Lake Michigan. They are present and must be taken into account to a greater or less degree by every school administrator in America. The subtitle of the book, therefore, might well be "A Sociological Basis of School Administration in America." This point is emphasized in a note of the publishers as follows: "This book should be read by all who are interested in the future of public education in America. While it is a dramatic and accurate account of the experience of the second city of the nation with public education—an experience which culminated recently in an assault on the liberty of the school system and in the deposition of the superintendent of schools—it is much more than a report of happenings on the shores of Lake Michigan. It is essentially an analysis of the forces which condition the administration of education in industrial society."

This book is an important contribution to the subject matter of the newly developing science of educational sociology. Moreover, its vigorous style will gain for it a wide reading among the lay public.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

Technique of Child Analysis, by ANNA FREUD. Washington, D. C.: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company, 1928, 58 pages.

Miss Freud's monograph is made up of a series of lectures given before a congress of psychoanalysts in Vienna. She has presented the idea that, although to her way of thinking children with infantile neuroses can really be analyzed, the method of analysis employed with adults cannot be applied without modification to children. In her presentation, she has discussed the method of child analysis, the role of transference in child analysis, and the relation of child analysis to education.

One of the salient points of Miss Freud's discussion rests on the fact that whereas adults come to analysis voluntarily, seeking relief consciously from a known (or suspected) disturbance and withal well disposed toward analysis as a method, children are brought to analysis by some one—usually a parent—for purposes which the child rarely suspects; the ailment is not always recognized by the child. The analyst faces the necessity of winning the child's confidence and loyalty by appealing to its emotions. Transference of emotional attachments of adults from figures of a remote past which lives only in the patient's memory is simple, but in the case of children whose emotions are centered upon parental figures which are so vividly a part of the present, such transference is almost impossible.

At best, the child analyst finds herself sharing the child's love for its parents. Where the child has developed a neurotic antipathy toward her parents, her siblings, her playmates, or her nurse, the analyst utilizes it to work her way into the child's confidence by sharing its aversion. She thus comes into conflict with the persons in whom the neurosis centers.

The significance of analysis of children for education, according to Miss Freud, is this. The child is not an independent personality; it depends too much upon those adults from whom it learns of the demands which society is to make upon it. So closely is the child bound to these adults—parents, nurses, teachers—that those habits of conformity which they have managed to build up in the child rest almost completely upon the emotional tie between them and the child. When the tie is severed, the habits are destroyed. (It is significant that Miss Freud uses the same example to bring home her point, which Dr. Watson uses in his *Psychological Care and Training of the Infant and Child* to emphasize the value of routine in the rearing of children.) It is not sufficient, as is done in adult analysis, to inform the child of the nature of its "illness" and to allow the child to "wish" and to accomplish its own cure. Nor can the child be separated from those figures in its environment who have brought on the neurosis. On the other hand, the child can not be returned to the environment which has brought its illness about; it cannot be returned to the selfsame set-up of personalities to effect a cure with their help, unless they are educated to the roles they are to play in the correction of the neurosis. Therefore, be they parents, nurses, or teachers, they must come under the direction of the analyst who must be a sort of *liaison* officer during the cure; they must be educated to a new point of view. They must cooperate rather than be in conflict with the analyst.

The analyst assumes a new and paradoxical role in her work with children; she must "analyze and educate, in one breath permit and forbid, loosen and hold in check again." She must encourage the confidential enumeration of neurotic acts and description of questionable behavior, with the accompanying pleasure to the child of experiencing the emotional reaction to the, by now, beloved analyst; at the same time,

she must train the child to desist from his neuroticism. Miss Freud thinks this role difficult.

The tenor of the monograph is somewhat apologetic. It seems that Miss Freud feels she must defend, first of all, her deviations from adult analysis, and, secondly, her disappointing lack of accomplishment in child analysis. But she promises great things for the future. Because the neurotic child "need only go a short distance back [in its life] to enter again the normal road adapted to his real nature"; because in the "moderation of the rigidity of the super-ego" of the child, the analyst can secure the cooperation of the parents; because the analyst of children can not only help them to adapt themselves to the environment but can also adapt the environment to them; Miss Freud feels that, in child analysis, she will be able to "attain alterations, improvements and recoveries of which in adult analysis [I] cannot even allow [myself] to dream."

IRVING ASTRACHAN

Training Children to Study, by BESSIE W. STILLMAN. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1928.

This book is a practical treatise dealing with the problem of training pupils to analyze subject matter, to discriminate between major and minor points, to perceive relationships, to evaluate and verify the findings. In brief, the author's purpose is to show how school subjects in grades five, six, and seven can be utilized in training children to think. The discussion is based primarily upon Dewey's *How We Think*. The introduction was written by Frank McMurry and the introductory chapter on "The Place of Thinking in Education" by Boyd H. Bode. The chapter titles are as follows:

Stimulating the Questioning Attitude of Mind

Helping the Child to Get Food for Thought

Helping the Child to Organize His Facts

Teaching the Child How to Make the Most Economical Use of His Memory

Making Ideas Function

Self-Expression Through English Composition

Mastery of Certain Common Tools

Education—A Process for the Cultivation of Attitudes

The author's discussion is based on sound principles of psychology. Each point is driven home by wisely selected illustrations. Only once did the reviewer come across what seemed to be questionable psychology. It appears that the author accepts the implications of James's statement, "Keep the faculty of effort alive in you by a little gratuitous exercise every day," without qualifications. To the reviewer, it is not gratuitous work for its own sake, but gratuitous work that good may come from it that counts.

If pupils are taught to study in the way recommended by Miss Stillman, their educational outcomes will be greatly increased in value.

Their ability to think and study would be superior, and their attitudes would play a greater role in their lives.

The book will be extremely useful to teachers of the intermediate and upper grades.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Elements of Rural Sociology, by NEWELL L. SIMS. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1927.

The teacher who would place on his reference shelf a few of the best books of the time on the social problems that are agitating the world and that are of value in his preparation as a teacher will find Dr. Sims's book of especial value. In fact, the reviewer regards it as being of greater value for this purpose than any other that has yet appeared in this field. The author has gathered a mass of very pertinent material relating to rural life, its people, its culture, its tradition, its standards of living, its schools, its churches, and with consummate skill he has organized this material and interpreted results with fairness and accuracy.

Dr. Sims has no theory to expound, no case to prove. He presents his conclusions as facts and figures gathered from varying and widely separated sources. There is no dodging of facts nor sentimental glossing of situations. Tenant farming, the rural church, and the rural school are discussed in separate chapters with a detachment that is refreshing. Dr. Sims is not pessimistic in his outlook. When in his later chapters he comes to the discussion of suggestions for improvement, his work is quite as strong as elsewhere.

Though prepared primarily as a text for classroom use, its success there is open to doubts owing to the style in which it is written, but as a work of reference and even as a guide for the general reader, its value cannot be doubted.

G. O. MUDGE

Adult Learning, by EDWARD L. THORNDIKE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928.

This volume is a summary of the results of an investigation in adult learning carried on for two years at Teachers College under the direction of Dr. Thorndike. Dr. Thorndike has written the book and given his interpretation of the results. It is probably the best book that has been produced in recent years on the technique of research, far better than any of the recent books on the same subject. It should be of value to the research and graduate students who are endeavoring to master techniques in research. It is exceedingly suggestive and stimulating.

The purpose of the book is to report the facts concerning changes in the amount and changes in the nature of ability to learn from about the age of 15 to about the age of 45 and especially from the age of 25

to the age of 45. This information should be useful in the guidance of adult education. Dr. Thorndike states that there has never been an extensive and systematic inquiry seeking to discover whether and to what extent infancy, childhood, and adolescence do have, by nature, an advantage over the years from 20 to 40 in respect to ability to learn. From the study Dr. Thorndike says we may note the following facts:

1. The differences in rate of learning between old and young are small in comparison with the differences within either group.
2. When other factors than age are equalized or 'partialed out,' the influence approaches zero."

In the chapter on the learning of adults of inferior intelligence, he makes the following significant statement: "It seems certain that these adults learned these school subjects more rapidly than they would have learned them at the age of ten or twelve." This fact throws light on certain school conditions and it may be possible that children who do not get along well in school during their early years may do much better when they become adults.

It was found that the drop in learning ability in twenty years from 21 to 41 in this group due to age alone is about one half of one per cent per year. It was found that the results with adult men of low level of intelligence support the conclusions that the curve of ability to learn in relation to age from 22 to 42 is a very slow decline and is no greater for inferior intelligence than for superior. It was found that adults learn much less than they might, partly because they underestimate their power of learning, and partly because of unpleasant attention and comment. The fact is that adults learn less than they might because they do not care enough about learning.

In the chapter on "Practical Applications" some comforting suggestions are made for those who are approaching the age of 40 when it is stated that ". . . nobody under forty-five should restrain himself from trying to learn anything because of a belief or fear that he is too old to be able to learn it. Nor should he use that fear as an excuse for not learning anything which he ought to learn. If he fails in learning it, inability due directly to age will rarely, if ever, be the reason. The reason will commonly be one or more of these:

1. He lacks and always has lacked the capacity to learn that particular thing.
2. His desire to learn it is not strong enough to cause him to give proper attention to it.
3. The ways and means which he adopts are inadequate, and would have been so at any age, to teach him that thing.
4. He has habits or ideas or other tendencies which interfere with the new acquisition, and which he is unable or unwilling to alter.

The book is illustrated by graphs and tables. It is a most valuable contribution to the field of educational psychology and to the education of adults.

CHARLES E. BENSON

A State Educational System at Work, by M. V. O'SHEA.
Madison, Wis. The University of Wisconsin, 1927,
367 pages.

This study is supplementary to the volume entitled *Public Education in Mississippi* by the same author. In the language of the foreword, it is the "report of the intellectual status and educational progress of pupils in the elementary and high schools and freshmen in the colleges, public and private, of Mississippi, together with recommendations relating to the modification of educational procedure in the State." In this book, Professor O'Shea makes a notable contribution to current educational literature. He succeeds most admirably in presenting scientific data in such manner that the layman "knows what it is all about." At the same time, he provides a model of technique for the professional student of administrative tests. This volume might well serve as a text for the classroom of a teachers college.

The author calls attention to high degree of correlation between the results of the measurement survey and the conclusions otherwise arrived at and published in the preceding volume. This confirmative use of tests and measures, paralleling and checking general estimates and judgments is too infrequently stressed by devotees of scientific measurement. Professor O'Shea provides us an example of intelligence tests intelligently administered. "No effort was made to measure the success of the schools in training for manual pursuits or for social efficiency or adaptability"—implies nothing for future surveys as new ways of testing are devised.

We are all conscious of the perplexing Negro problem which confronts the Southern States, and we are conscious that the problem, at least indirectly, affects us all. The author himself evidently shares this feeling because he presents "a vast amount of data" relative to Negro education in Mississippi. It seems, however, to this reader that the comparative data include too small a proportion of Negroes. While we concede the "smallness of the probable error" in "a fair sampling of all possible measurements," we note that "a fair sampling" of the White school children is *seven tenths* of the White school population, and "a fair sampling" of the Negro school children is *three tenths* of the Negro school population. By way of illustrating the foregoing, in actual application, we find that the author's conclusions as to the intelligence, advancement, and achievement of Negro children of 6 years, in cities over 2500 in population is based on a study of only 31 individuals whereas the study of the White children of 6 years includes 88. Also 538 White children of 10 years are studied and 175 Negroes of the same age. And yet Mississippi is more black than white.

A few of the facts brought out by the survey are quite unique aside from their significance. Table III, page 65, shows the chronological age and grade distribution of the public-school children of 830 cities outside of Mississippi. Tables VI and XI, pages 69 and 78, show like statistics for White and Negro Mississippi cities over 2500 in population.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
U. S.	502,797	384,392	368,654	363,100	352,419	326,384	280,413	231,177	208,218	135,978	93,521	73,399
Miss. (W).....	299	427	1025	1114	1104	1234	1290	969	1493	1208	1137	922
Miss. (N).....	128	214	396	348	296	287	283	168	284	296	98	95

The United States enrollment is highest in grade 1 and steps down each year to grade 12. The enrollment curve in Mississippi provides an interesting contrast. The highest White enrollment is in grade 9 and the highest Negro enrollment is in grade 3.

Again the survey finds that the psychological tests place an unusually large number of children in grades 3, 4, and 5 in the "genius" class. Most of these geniuses seem to disappear, however, and are not found higher up. Yet paradoxically the median for the White high schools of the State is 98, which is higher than the average for high schools outside of Mississippi. Other psychological tests rate the freshmen of Mississippi colleges lower than the freshmen in colleges outside the State. In connection with this and in fairness to all college freshmen it may be said that data on freshmen is the least reliable of all data. This may be due to any of various reasons; extracurricular activities, the lack of adjustment to new surroundings, organized effort within the institution to convince the freshman that he is a "nit-wit"; or, because of a temporary determination on his own part that, having arrived, he "ain't goin' to work no more."

The Millsaps freshmen outclassed all other freshmen of the state in the survey's psychological test, but it was discovered that the Millsaps group had been tested under the auspices of a teacher's college a few weeks previously. So it seems that one can be somewhat rehearsed or crammed for a measurement of original capacity.

The message of the survey to Mississippians is that there is a wide disparity of educational opportunity within the State and that the State as a whole must set up and finance an equalization program. It appears that many rural sections are too poor or too inert to provide for their own educational needs. In view of the rural problem and the tremendous burden of devising and financing a suitable education for the large Negro population, the local resident will find much comfort in the author's assurance that the intelligence and achievement of the White school children of Mississippi compare favorably with those of the country at large; that Mississippi has a better record for retention of

pupils (White) through the high-school course than has any other state or group of states; and that she stands near the top among the states in the proportion of White men and women who attend college. In part, the author may have gone so far in his reassurances as to invite legislative procrastination when he closes the volume with the following paragraph.

"RESUME

Mississippi pupils in communities of all sizes in every grade of the elementary school make a good showing, taken as a whole, in respect to the use they make of their intellectual endowments. The pupils in towns and small communities with inferior school facilities make as good a showing in achievement quotients as do the pupils in larger communities. This suggests that pupils in rural districts may be less distracted from school work than are pupils in larger communities, and they may possess greater interest in school work and greater endurance, industry, and ambition to succeed, since they have rather meager educational opportunities as compared with pupils in the larger places."

FORTHCOMING ARTICLES

Education in Soviet Armenia. Part II—The Complex Method of Teaching, by George M. Wilcox.

Children Crying for the Moon, by Agnes M. Conklin.

The Sociological and Educational Significance of Jewish Schools in New York, by Aaron D. Fleshler.

A Socio-Educational Philosophy of the Curriculum, by Robert W. Frederick.

United States History Contributions to Projects in Health Education, by Mary Moriarty.

Curriculum Building and the New Social Sciences, by Guy V. Price.

Reading Musical Programs Intelligently, by Henry Harap.

Sociology Applied in Curriculum Making, by George A. Retan.

How Many Colleges? by Stephen G. Rich.

Handedness, by Ira M. Gast.

The Jews: Race or Conglomerate, by Stephen G. Rich.

The Socially Efficient Community, by David Snedden.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The readers of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* are apprised of the work of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology.

The purpose of the Society, as stated in its constitution, is "the promotion of the scientific study of educational sociology."

Educators who were studying the application of sociology to education had occasionally arranged formal programs in connection with the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association and of the American Sociological Society as far back as 1913. This Society was formally organized in Cleveland in 1923; since then it has met twice each year.

OFFICERS FOR 1928-1929

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F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota
Henry W. Holmes, Harvard University
Charles E. Martz, Cleveland School of Education

Mr. Nels Anderson, the author of the widely known book on the "Hobo," is teaching sociology in the new Seth Low Junior College, which is a part of the expanded educational program of Columbia University. Mr. Anderson is teaching an introductory course in educational sociology in New York University during the present year.

Mr. Russell S. Woglom of the High School of Glen Ridge, N. J., became supervising principal of the schools at High Bridge, N. J., succeeding Mr. Robert Parker, who became superintendent at Mount Holly, N. J.

Superintendent H. R. Thompson of the Frisco School, Frisco, Texas, is on leave of absence during the present year (1928-1929) studying for an A.M. degree in the School of Education of New York University.

Miss Katherine Welch of the home economics department of the Shoemaker Junior High School of Philadelphia completed her work for a degree in the October class in the School of Education of New York University during the past summer.

Superintendent of Schools Arthur D. Horton of Weston, West Virginia, resigned during the beginning of the present school year to become superintendent of schools at Ridgefield, Connecticut. Superintendent Horton is working on his doctorate at New York University.

Education through travel is becoming more and more a newer phase of world understanding. The "Floating University" on November 10 left New York on the steamship *President Wilson* for the second world cruise. The "Floating University" has a faculty of more than twenty teachers and instructors and an enrollment of 100 students of secondary, collegiate, and graduate rank. The itinerary covers the leading countries of the world and the cruise is concluded June 10, 1928. Dr. E. A. Ross of the University of Wisconsin is the director of education and Mr. Sydney Greenbie, an author and traveler of world experience, is the director of the cruise. A complete program of study, recreation, and social welfare is planned and carried out. Many of the students will receive university credit for the work done on this cruise.

Mr. J. E. Burk, dean of men and associate professor of English of Denton Teachers College, San Angelo, Texas, is an instructor in the department of English in the School of Education of New York University.

Mr. James E. Wardle, formerly critic of junior-high-school mathematics at the East Stroudsburg State Teachers College, is now supervising principal of the South Huntington schools. Mr. Wardle received his A.M. degree from New York University in June, 1926.

Mr. George M. Wilcox, who spent the past two years of study at Teachers College, is now head of the department of education, Huron College, Huron, South Dakota.

Professor Robert L. Whiley of the State Teachers College of San Marcos, Texas, is enjoying a year's leave of absence from his work in the department of social science. He is completing his graduate study in the School of Education of New York University.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. A. Scott Lee is instructor in educational psychology, Jamaica Training School for Teachers, New York. Dr. Lee received his A.B. from Peabody College for Teachers, his A.M. from Columbia University, and the doctorate from New York University. Dr. Lee has had wide experience as a teacher, principal, and member of teacher-training faculties.

Professor George Mills Wilcox was born in Foochow, China. He received his A.B. at Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa; his A.M. at the State University of Iowa; and he has continued his graduate study toward a doctorate at Columbia. For a number of years he was director of education of Near East Relief and in charge of the orphan schools in Greece, Syria, and other Near East countries.

Professor L. D. Zeleny of the department of sociology, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota, received his Sc.B. from the University of Minnesota; his A.M. from Teachers College, Columbia University; and he has continued his graduate study at both Columbia and the University of Minnesota. He has been a frequent contributor to educational periodicals.

Professor Walter R. Smith of the department of educational sociology, University of Kansas, is a Missourian by birth and early training. He received his Ph.B. from Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Missouri; his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago. He has had administrative work as principal of a high school in Missouri, before he became an instructor in Washington University, St. Louis. Later he was associated with the social science department of Heidelberg at Tiffin, Ohio; in the same department at the Kansas State Normal College, at Emporia. He has been in his present position at the University of Kansas since 1919. He is an active member of numerous sociological and educational associations. He is a contributor to numerous periodicals. He is the author of *Introduction to Educational Sociology*, which is one of the most widely used books in this new field, besides *Constructive School Discipline*, written from the viewpoint of the social control of the school.

Professor John M. Eddy is associate professor of education in the Mississippi State College for Women.

**STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC.,
REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912**

Of The Journal of Educational Sociology, published Monthly except July and August at Albany, N. Y. for October, 1928.

**State of New York } ss
County of Albany }**

Before me, a Notary Public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared A. J. Fowers, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the Business Manager of The Journal of Educational Sociology and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

Publisher, American Viewpoint Society, Inc. 13 Astor Place, New York City
Editor, E. George Payne. Washington Sq. East, New York City
Business Manager, A. J. Fowers. 883 Broadway, Albany, N. Y.

2. That the owners are:

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3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding 1 per cent or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are:
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4. That the two paragraphs next above, giving the names of the owners, stockholders, and security holders, if any, contain not only the list of stockholders and security holders as they appear upon the books of the company but also, in cases where the stockholder or security holder appears upon the books of the company as trustee or in any other fiduciary relation, the name of the person or corporation for whom such trustee is acting, is given; also that the said two paragraphs contain statements embracing affiant's full knowledge and belief as to the circumstances and conditions under which stockholders and security holders who do not appear upon the books of the company as trustees, hold stock and securities in a capacity other than that of a bona fide owner; and this affiant has no reason to believe that any other person, association, or corporation has any interest direct or indirect in the said stock bonds, or other securities than as so stated by him.

A. J. FOWERS, Business Manager

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 14th day of October, 1928.

W. S. RYAN,

(My commission expires March 31, 1929.)

